CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE REFUGE AT RAVENEL TRACT, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 448

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 126 acre tract located in southern Charleston County, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Mr. Phineas Deford and Special Properties comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract, which borders Old Jacksonboro Road (S-1845) to the south and Caw Caw Swamp to the north, will be developed for single family occupancy. The surrounding area is still fairly rural, but a few developments are occurring in vicinity of the tract to the west and south.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tract, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. Individual lot construction will involve grading, additional utility construction, and subsequent building of structures. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project tract. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile from the proposed tract was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology failed to identify any sites in the APE.

The maps at the S.C. Department of Archives and History were also consulted to see if any National Register of Historic Places sites were in the vicinity of the project area. None were identified. Two other sites (378-506 and 378-506.1), however, were recorded in the APE. Site 378-506 is the c. 1855 Stono Baptist Church while 378-506.1 is the Stono Baptist Church cemetery. Both are not eligible for the National Register. A county-wide architectural survey was performed in 1992, so these records are thought to be complete (Fick 1992).

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects which were placed at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 345 shovel tests were excavated along 26 transect lines.

As a result of these investigations four sites, 38CH2091-2094, were identified. Site 38CH2091 is a late eighteenth to early nineteenth century domestic site that is potentially eligible for the National Register for its information about plantation life. Site 38CH2092 is a sparse nineteenth century scatter that is recommended not eligible for its lack of data sets and inability to address significant research questions. Site 38CH2093 is a sparse nineteenth century scatter that is recommended not eligible for the National Register for its lack of data sets and inability to address significant research questions. Site 38CH2094 is a late nineteenth to twentieth century domestic scatter that is recommended not eligible for the National Register, also, for its lack of data sets and inability to address significant research questions.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office

or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Phineas Deford of Special Properties in Charleston, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Special Properties with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a 126 acre tract proposed to be used for residential development near the town of Ravenel, South Carolina (Figure 1). The tract is bordered by Old Jacksonboro Road (S-1845) to the south and Caw Caw Swamp to the north (Figure 2). The existing Shilelagh Oaks Farms Subdivision makes up the western boundary.

The tract consists of slightly undulating topography that slopes down toward Caw Caw Swamp to the north. Also found in the area are forests of mixed pines and hardwoods and areas of only hardwoods. The surrounding area is being developed with several residential neighborhoods.

The tract is intended for a residential development. This work will require the construction of utilities such as electrical, sewer, and water lines as well as an expanded road system when development begins. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to damage or otherwise affect any cultural resources that may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Charleston County.

Chicora Foundation provided a proposal for the survey on June 6, 2006. The proposal was accepted on June 7. Work began shortly thereafter. Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work no previously recorded sites were found within the 0.5 mile APE.

Examination of architectural sites at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History failed to identify any National Register of Historic Places sites, however two resources (378-506 and 378-506.1) were recorded. These resources are the c. 1855 Stono Baptist Church and Cemetery. Both were found to be not eligible for the National Register. No other sites were found in the 1992 county-wide architectural survey (Fick 1992).

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey for the tract was conducted from June 19-27, 2006 by Ms. Julie Poppell, Ms. Alyson Herbert, and Ms. Kim Igou under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Charleston County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

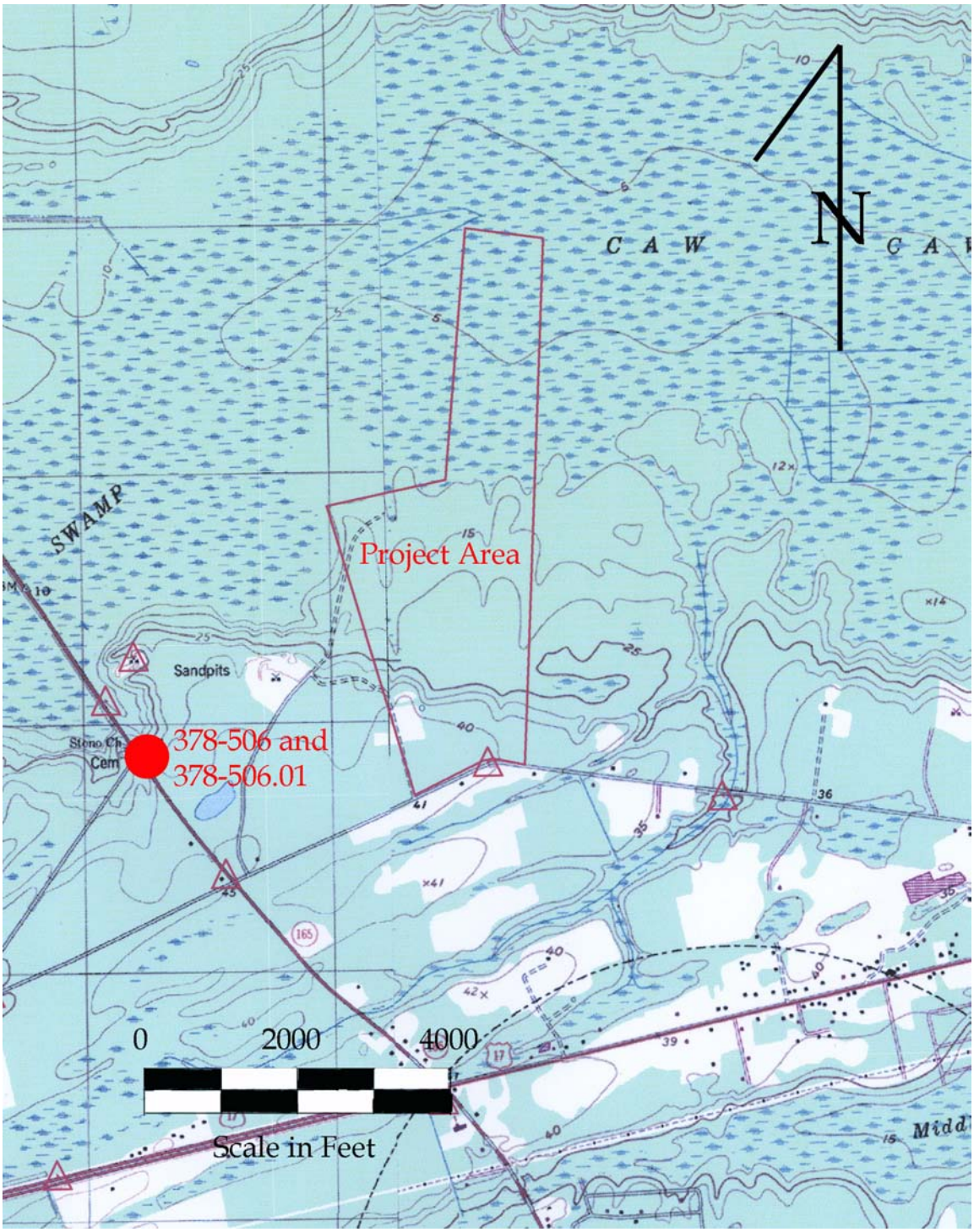


Figure 2. Project tract and previously recorded architectural sites (basemap is USGS Ravenel 7.5').

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Charleston County is located in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the east by the Atlantic Ocean and a series of marsh, barrier, and sea islands (Mathews et al. 1980:133). Elevations in the County range from sea level to about 70 feet above mean sea level (AMSL).

Seven major drainages are found in Charleston County. Four of these, the Wando, Ashley, Stono, and North Edisto, are dominated by tidal flows and are saline. The Wando forms a portion of the County's interior boundary northeast of Charleston, while the Ashley flows west of the peninsular city of Charleston. The three with significant freshwater flow are the Santee, which forms the northern boundary of the County; the South Edisto, which forms the southern boundary; and the Cooper, which bisects the County.

Because of the low topography, many broad, low gradient interior drains are present as either extensions of the tidal rivers or as flooded bays and swales. Extensions included Toogoodoo and Gibson creeks that flow into the Wadmalaw.

Elevations in the project area range from about 5 to 40 feet AMSL. In general, the topography slopes toward Caw Caw Swamp to the north.

Geology and Soils

Coastal Plain geological formations are unconsolidated sedimentary deposits of very recent age (Pleistocene and Holocene) lying unconformably on ancient crystalline rocks (Cooke 1936; Miller 1971:74). The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar, geomorphic units, or terraces, parallel to the coast. The sites are located in an area identified by Cooke (1936) as part of the Pamlico terrace, which includes the land between the recent shore and an abandoned shore line about 25 feet AMSL. Cooke (1936:7) notes that evidence of ancient beaches and swales can still be seen in the Pamlico formation and this likely contributed to the ridge and trough topography present in some areas.

Within the coastal zone the soils are Holocene and Pleistocene in age and were formed from materials that were deposited during the

Figure 3. View of mixed pines and hardwoods on the property.

various stages of coastal submergence. The formation of soils is affected by this parent material (primarily sands and clays), the temperate climate, the various soil organisms, topography, and time.

The mainland soils are Pleistocene in age and tend to have more distinct horizon development and diversity than the younger soils of the sea and barrier islands. Sandy to loamy soils predominate in the level to gently sloping mainland areas. The island soils are less diverse and less well developed, frequently lacking a well-defined B horizon. Organic matter is low and the soils tend to be acidic. The Holocene deposits typical of barrier islands and found as a fringe on some sea islands, consist almost entirely of quartz sand, which exhibits little organic matter. Tidal marsh soils are Holocene in age and consist of fine sands, clay, and organic matter deposited over older Pleistocene sands. The soils are frequently covered by up to 2 feet of saltwater during high tides. Historically, marsh soils have been used as compost or fertilizer for a variety of crops, including cotton (Hammond 1884:510) and Allston mentions that the sandy soil of the coastal region "bears well the admixture of salt and marsh mud with the compost" (Allston 1854:13).

Ten soil types are found in the survey area including two well-drained soils, Lakeland sand and Wagram loamy fine sand, one moderately well drained soil, Chipley loamy fine sand, one somewhat poorly drained soil, Leon fine sand, and five poorly to very poorly drained soils, Rutlege loamy fine sand, Santee clay loam, St. Johns fine sand, Wadmalaw fine sandy loam, and Yonges loamy fine sand. Caw Caw swamp is in Bayboro sandy clay loam

The well drained soils are Lakeland sands, which has an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) sand to a depth of 0.6 foot over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sand to a depth of 1.1 feet and Wagram soils that have an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to 0.7 foot in depth over a dark brown (10YR4/3) loamy fine sand to 1.3 feet in depth.

Chipley soils have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy fine sand to 0.5 foot in depth over a yellowish brown (10YR5/4) loamy fine sand to just under a foot in depth. Leon soils have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) fine sand to 0.9 foot in depth over a gray (10YR6/1) coarse sand to 1.7 feet in depth.

Of the poorly drained soils, the Rutlege Series has an Ap horizon of black (10YR2/1) loamy fine sand to 0.7 foot in depth over a very dark brown (10YR2/2) loamy fine sand to 1.7 feet in depth. Santee soils have an A horizon of black (N1/0) loam to 0.5 foot in depth over a black (N1/0) clay loam to 1.2 feet in depth. The St. Johns Series has an Ap horizon of black (10YR2/1) fine sand to 0.5 foot over a dark gray (10YR4/1) fine sand to 1.0 foot in depth. Wadmalaw soils have an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to 0.4 foot in depth over a very dark gray (10YR3/1) fine sandy loam to 0.8 foot in depth. Younges soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10yR4/2) loamy fine sand to 0.9 foot in depth over a light brownish gray (10YR6/2) loamy fine sand to 1.2 feet in depth.

Bayboro soils are very poorly drained with an A horizon of black (N2/0) sandy clay loam to 0.1 foot over a black (N2/0) sandy clay loam to 1.4 feet in depth.

Climate

The weather was all-important in Colonial society, affecting the crops that in turn affected trade and wealth. Just as importantly, the Carolina climate affected, usually for the worse, the planter's health. Greene notes that:

Figure 4. View of Caw Caw Swamp.

> the prospects of obtaining wealth with ease . . . meant little in a menacing environment, and both Nairne and Norris took pains to minimize the unpleasant and dangerous features that already had combined to give South Carolina an ambiguous reputation. They had to admit that throughout the summer temperatures were "indeed troublesome to Strangers." But they contended that settlers had quickly found satisfactory remedies in the form of "open airy Rooms, Arbours and Summer-houses" constructed in shady groves and frequent cool baths and insisted the discomfitures of the summers were more than offset by the agreeableness of the rest of the seasons. [They also suggested] that ill-health was largely limited to newcomers before they were seasoned to the climate, to people who insisted in living in low marshy ground, and to those who were excessive and careless in their eating, drinking, and personal habits. "If temperate," they asserted, those who lived on "dry healthy Land," were "generally very healthful" (Greene 1989:16).

While making for good public relations, the reality was far different. Roy Merrens and George Terry (1989) found that in nearby Christ Church Parish, 86% of all those whose births and deaths are recorded in the parish register, died before the age of twenty. Equally frightening statistics have been compiled by John Duffy (1952), who found that the average European could expect to live to the age of about 30 in South Carolina during the first quarter of the eighteenth century. Yellow fever, smallpox, diphtheria, scarlet fever, malaria, dysentery all were at home in Carolina. Using the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel (SPG) records, Duffy found that from 1700 to 1750, 38% of the missionaries either died or were compelled to resign because of serious illness within the first five years of their arrival. Within 10 years of their arrival, 52% had died or resigned because of their health. After 15 years in the colony, the combined death toll and resignations from sickness reached 68% -- two out of every three missionaries.

African Americans fared no better. Frank Klingberg (1941:154), using SPG records found that in a single four month period over 400 slaves died of "distemper." William Dusinberre, exploring rice plantations along the Carolina coast, entitled one of his chapters "The Charnel House" – a reference to the extraordinary morbidity of African Americans on rice plantations. He reports that on some plantations the child mortality rate (to age sixteen) was a

horrific 90% (Dusinberre 1996:51), while the probable average for rice plantations was around 60% (Dusinberre 1996:239). Cotton plantations – that were probably most numerous in Christ Church – were healthier, but even there fully a third of all slave children did not live to see their sixteenth birthday.

Beginning in the last third of the eighteenth century the life expectancy began to increase. Merrens and Terry suggest that this was the result of the occupants beginning to understand the cause of malaria:

> During the middle of the eighteenth century South Carolinian's perception of the wholesome environment of the lowcountry swamps began to change. People no longer preferred these areas on the score of health as a place of summer residence. Instead, residents began to view the lowcountry as fostering both mosquitoes and death (Merrens and Terry 1989:547).

Perhaps most importantly it is about this time when we also see the planter move his residence from the swamp edge (where he could easily oversee both slaves and crops) to higher, sandier locations. Slave settlements, too, appear to move to somewhat drier and healthier environs.

The Charleston climate, with its moderate winters and long, hot summers, affected not only the health of the populations and the crops grown, it also influenced the politics of Carolina. The summer climate of Carolina, while causing the Barbadian immigrants to feel that they had resettled in the tropics, also convinced most that slavery was inevitable. Not only was slavery the accepted order to the planters from Barbados, Jamaica, Antique, and St. Kitts, it seemed impossible for white Englishmen to work in the torrid heat – making African American slaves that much more essential (Donnan 1928). Even in the Christ Church parish, which in 1720 had a very low settlement compared to other parishes, slaves, comprised 85.6% of the populations.

Floristics

The survey area exhibits two major ecosystems: the maritime forest ecosystem, which consists of the upland forest areas and the palustrine ecosystem, which consists of essentially fresh water (Sandifer et al. 1980:7-9).

The maritime forest ecosystem has been found to consist of five principal forest types, including the Oak-Pine forests, the Mixed Oak Hardwood forests, the Palmetto forests, the Oak thickets, and other miscellaneous wooded areas (such as salt marsh thickets and wax myrtle thickets).

Of these, the Oak-Pine forests are most common, constituting large areas of Charleston's original forest community. In some areas palmetto becomes an important sub-dominant. Typically these forests are dominated by the laurel oak with pine (primarily loblolly with minor amounts of longleaf pine) as the major canopy co-dominant. Hickory is present, although uncommon. Other trees found are the sweet gum and magnolia, with sassafras, red bay, American holly, and wax myrtle and palmetto found in the understory.

Caw Caw Swamp had hardwood stands of predominately cypress and an understory of palmettos.

Mills, in the early nineteenth century, remarked that:

> South Carolina is rich in native and exotic productions; the varieties of its soil, climate, and geological positions, afford plants of rare, valuable, and medicinal qualities; fruits of a luscious, refreshing, and nourishing nature; vines and shrubs of

> exquisite beauty, fragrance, and luxuriance, and forest trees of noble growth, in great variety (Mills 1972:66).

The loblolly pine was called the "pitch or Frankincense Pine" and was used to produce tar and turpentine; the longleaf pine was "much used in building and for all other domestic purposes;" trees such as the red bay and red cedar were often used in furniture making and cedar was a favorite for posts; and live oaks were recognized as yielding "the best of timber for ship building;" (Mills 1972:66-85). Mills also observed that:

> in former years cypress was much used in building, but the difficulty of obtaining it now, compared with the pine, occasions little of it to be cut for sale, except in the shape of shingles; the cypress is a most valuable wood for durability and lightness. Besides the two names we have cedar, poplar, beech, oak, and locust, which are or may be also used in building (Mills 1972:460).

The "Oak and hickory high lands" according to Mills were, "well suited for corn and provisions, also for indigo and cotton" (Mills 1972:443). The value of these lands in the mid-1820s was from $10 to $20 per acre, less expensive than the tidal swamp or inland swamp lands (where rice and, with drainage, cotton could be grown).

Today, virtually all of the site area's higher ground evidences some form or another of disturbance. Historically the land was used for cultivation as evidenced by ditches and logging.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

Numerous projects have taken place in vicinity to the current survey area. Most of the surveys are the result of compliance projects for roads (Frick and Roberts 2004) and sand mines (Agha 2005).

Prehistoric Synopsis

Several previously published archaeological studies are available for the Charleston area that provide additional background, including those previously mentioned. A considerable amount of archaeology has been conducted in the Charleston area and these works should be consulted for broad overviews.

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to perhaps 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to about 1000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with relatively little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched and broad stemmed projectile points, are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10).

To some the Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast. To others, the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. falls into the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of the terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) and Thom's Creek (sand or non-tempered) series pottery.

The subsistence economy during this early period on the coast of South Carolina was based primarily on deer hunting, fishing, and shellfish collection, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, and reptiles. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from shell ring sites such as Lighthouse Point on James Island to the west, also in Charleston County on James Island, indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable.

Toward the end of the Thom's Creek phase there is evidence of sea level change, and a number of small, non-shell midden sites are found along the coast. Apparently the rising sea level inundated the tide marshes on which the Thom's Creek people relied.

The succeeding Refuge phase, which dates from about 1100 to 500 B.C., suggests fragmentation caused by the environmental changes (Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). Sites

are generally small and some coastal sites evidence no shellfish collection at all (Trinkley 1982). Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and a bridge to the succeeding Deptford culture.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. Also present are quantities of cord marked, simple stamped, and occasional fabric impressed pottery. During this period there is a blending of the Deptford ceramic tradition of the lower Savannah with the Deep Creek tradition found further north along the South Carolina coast and extending into North Carolina (Trinkley 1983).

The Middle Woodland period (ca. 300 B.C. to A.D. 1000) is characterized by the use of sand burial mounds and ossuaries along the

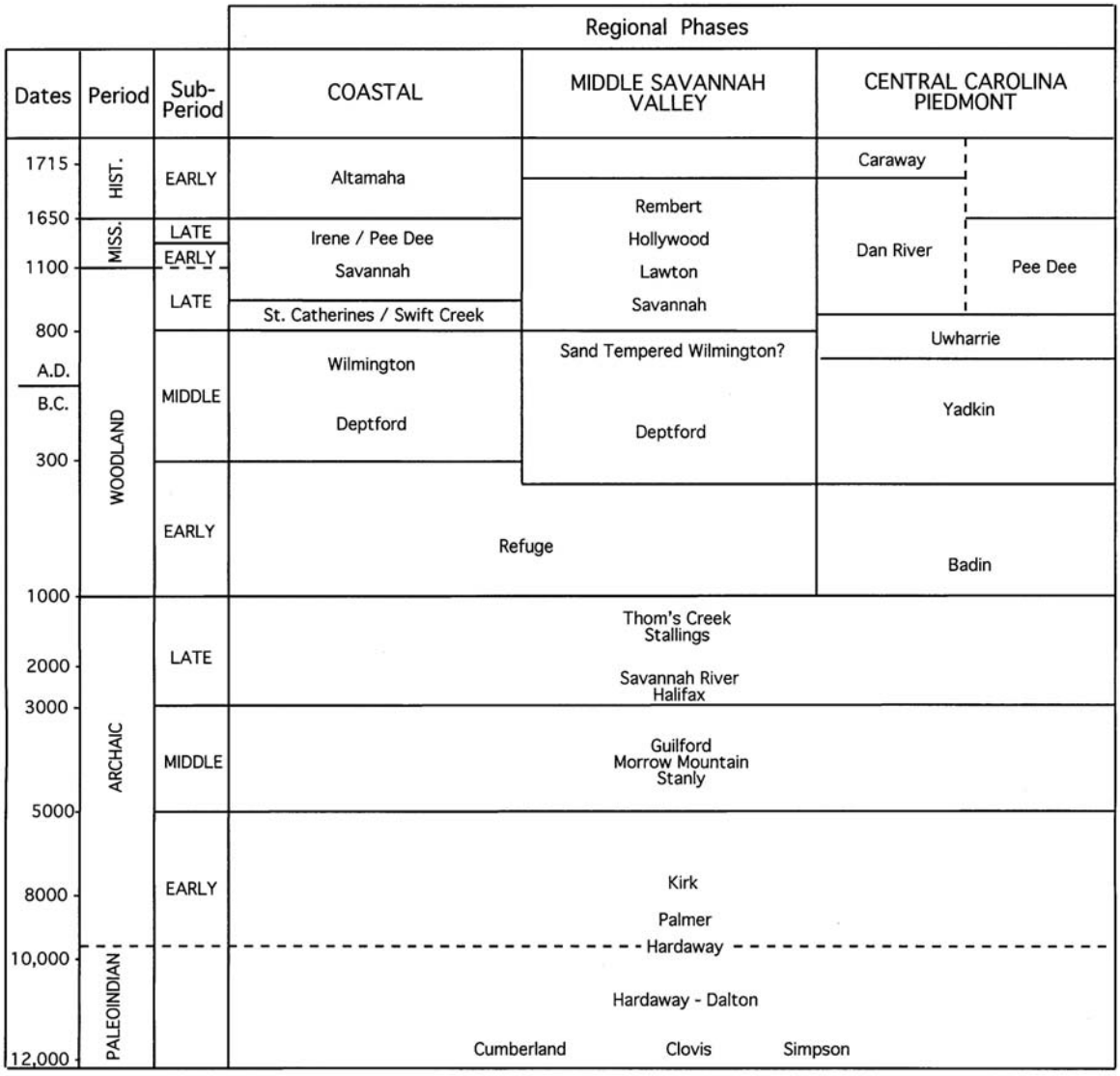


Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina coasts (Brooks et al. 1982; Thomas and Larsen 1979; Wilson 1982). Middle Woodland coastal plain sites continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the fall line, sites are characterized by sparse shell and few artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland period (ca. A.D. 1000 to 1650 in some areas of the coast) may be characterized as a continuum of the previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblage.

The Middle and Late Woodland occupations in South Carolina are characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupations. On the southern coast they are associated with the Wilmington and St. Catherines phases, which date from about A.D. 500 to at least A.D. 1150, although there is evidence that the St. Catherines pottery continued to be produced much later in time (Trinkley 1981). On the northern coast there are very similar ceramics called Hanover and Santee.

The South Appalachian Mississippian period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest coastal phases are named Savannah and Irene (A.D. 1200 to 1550). Sometime after the arrival of Europeans on the Georgia coast in A.D. 1519, the Irene phase is replaced by the Altamaha phase. Altamaha pottery tends to be heavily grit tempered, the complicated stamped motifs tend to be rectilinear and poorly applied, and check stamping occurs as a minority ware. Further north, in the Charleston area, the Pee Dee or Irene ware is replaced by pottery with bolder designs, thought to be representative of the protohistoric and historic periods (South 1971).

Although there has been very little archaeological exploration of historic period Native American groups in the Charleston area, South has compiled a detailed overview of the ethnohistoric sources (South 1972).

Historic Overview

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were lured to the "new World" for reasons other than the acquisitions of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through the mercantile system.

By 1680, the settlers of Albermarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper rivers -- the area of modern-day Charleston.

The early settlers of the Carolina colony came from other mainland colonies, England, and the European continent. But the future of Carolina was largely directed by the large number of colonists from the English West Indies. This Caribbean connection has been discussed by Waterhouse (1975), who argues that the Caribbean immigrants were largely from old families of economic and political prominence that formed the Barbados elite. Waterhouse observes that while elsewhere in the American colonies the early settled families were displaced from their established positions of power and economic superiority by newcomers, this did not occur in South Carolina. In Carolina:

> a relatively large proportion of those who, in the middle of the eighteenth century, were among the wealthier inhabitants, were descended from those families who had arrived in the colony during the first twenty years of its settlement (Waterhouse 1975:280).

This immigration turned out to be a significant factor in the stability and longevity of South Carolina's colonial elite. It also firmly established the foundations of slavery and cash crop plantations.

In 1682 the first three Carolina counties -- Berkeley, Colleton, and Craven -- were created. This original Colleton County, where the survey area was located, was far larger than the area known as Colleton today and included roughly the area between the Stone and Combahee rivers. This incorporated modern-day Dorchester County, as well as Edisto and Johns islands.

There seems to be little reliable information concerning the early settlement of Colleton, although there is general agreement that one settlement grew up around Jacksonboro on the Edisto River (known at the time as Pon Pon River). Another significant settlement was Willtown, situated about 8 miles south of Jacksonboro (and today outside of Colleton County). The Round O was an area initially used for cattle raising, although by 1700 it seems that rice was being planted (The Jaeger Company 1995:10).

Cattle raising was an easy way to exploit the region's land and resources, offering a relatively secure return for very little capital investment. Few slaves were necessary to manage the herd. The mild climate of the low country made winter forage more abundant and winter shelters unnecessary. The salt marshes on the coast, useless for other purposes, provided excellent grazing and eliminated the need to provide salt licks. More interior swamps found similar vegetation and provided a constant water supply (Coon 1972; Dunbar 1961). Production of cattle, hogs, and sheep quickly outstripped local consumption and by the early eighteenth century beef and pork were principal exports of the Colony to the West Indies (Ver Steeg 1975:114-116). This allowed the ties between Carolina and the Caribbean to remain strong, and provided essential provisions to the large scale, single crop plantations.

Rice and indigo both competed for the attention of Carolina planters. Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the Proprietors with the economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system -- slavery.

The Church Act of 1706 established two Anglican parishes in Colleton County -- St. Bartholomew's and St. Paul's (where the project area is located), with the former roughly encompassing what is today Colleton County.

Regardless of the progress of early settlement, by 1715 the Yemassee Indian initiated what was to develop into a major war that would leave the region largely uninhabited. Wallace, for example, suggests that the very low level of slave ownership in the area during the first quarter of the eighteenth century was the result of this war (Wallace 1934:I:309-310). The Jaeger Company (1995:10) notes that there were only about 379 residents in 1720, only 144 (about 38%) of whom were African American slaves.

As rice became a more important commodity during the early eighteenth century, however, the complexion of Colleton County gradually changed. South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By the close of the eighteenth century, some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). And by the end of the century over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves. With slavery came, to many, unbelievable wealth. Coclanis notes that:

> on the eve of the American Revolution, the white population of the low country was by far the richest single group in British

North America. With the area's wealth based largely on the expropriation by whites of the golden rice and blue dye produced by black slaves, the Carolina low country had by 1774 reached a level of aggregate wealth greater than that in many parts of the world even today. The evolution of Charleston, the center of the low-country civilization, reflected not only the growing wealth of the area but also its spirit and soul (Coclanis 1989:7).

Only certain areas of the low country, however, were suitable for rice production. During the early years rice was grown as an upland crop, in small fields adjacent to freshwater streams where water could be easily impounded and applied to the crop (Linder 1995:v, vii). By the early 1700s planters found that upland swamps were even better suited for rice, although the soils were quickly exhausted (Meriwether 1940; Sellers 1934). These upland swamps, distinct from well-drained uplands, remained the focus of Carolina rice agriculture during the entire Colonial period.

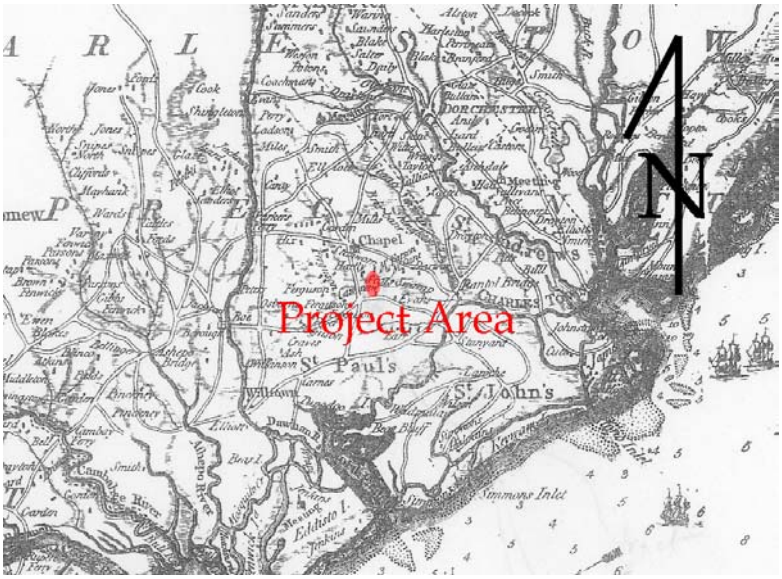


Figure 6. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 map showing the project area.

Mouzon's 1775 map shows a structure in the project area, however, no name is attributed to the settlement (Figure 6).

Hewatt, writing in 1779, describes the process of upland swamp rice cultivation:

> after the planter has obtained his tract of land, and built a house upon it, he then begins to clear his field of that load of wood with which the land is covered. Having cleared his field, he next surrounds it with a wooded fence, to exclude all hogs, sheep, and cattle from it. This field he plants with rice . . . year after year, until the lands are exhausted, or yield not a crop sufficient to answer his expectations. Then it is forsaken, and a fresh spot of land is cleared and planted, with is also treated in like manner, and in succession forsaken and neglected (Hewatt 1836:514).

This rather simplistic commentary failed to observe the engineering feat that upland swamp rice cultivation really was. Clearing, which alone was a monumental undertaking, was followed by the construction of dams, dikes, and trenches. By one estimate, a 500 acre rice field required 60 miles of dikes and ditches (Gunn 1976:1-16). Fields were carefully leveled to ensure that they could be completely covered by water. Rice was planted during two periods -- March 10 to April 10 and June 1 to June 10 -- avoiding May since vast migrations of "rice birds" passed through the state during that period and could destroy a crop. Rice was harvested in late August.

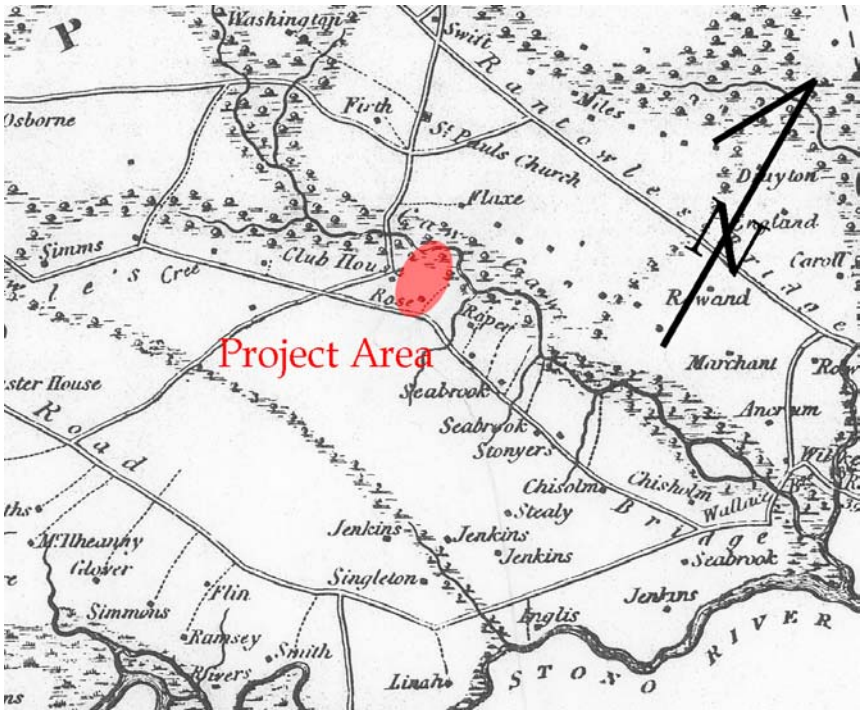


Figure 7. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

During the eighteenth century the profits to be gained from rice were extraordinary, ranging from a 12% to nearly 28% net return on the investment, well exceeding other cash crops, such as tobacco or indigo (see Coclanis 1989:141). Slavery in the Colleton area swelled, accounting for more than 82% of the area's population in 1790. Charleston was the mecca around which the economic, political, and social world of Carolina revolved. Charleston provided the essential opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism that allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system.

By the end of the eighteenth century, beginning of the nineteenth century, the rate of return on rice had been reduced, at best, to about 2%, and many years the rate of return was a staggering -3% to -7%. In 1859, just before the Civil War, the return is reported to have been -28%. As Coclanis observes:

> the economy of the South Carolina low country collapsed in the nineteenth century. Collapse did not come suddenly - many feel, for example, that the area's "golden age" lasted until about 1820 - but come it did nonetheless. By the late nineteenth century it was clear that the forces responsible for the area's earlier dynamism had been routed, the dark victory of economic stagnation virtually complete (Coclanis 1989:111).

Colleton County saw several military engagements during the American Revolution. Perhaps best known is the Battle of Parker's Ferry, where General Francis Marion and his force of about 400 men stopped the advance of superior British forces under the command of Lieutenant Colonel de Borock and forced his retreat back to Charleston (The Jaeger Company 1995:14). In early 1782, Jacksonboro served as the capital of South Carolina, hosting the General Assembly. It was during this term that South Carolina elected a new governor and approved the various Amercement and Confiscation Acts aimed against British loyalists.

After the American Revolution the economy of the Colleton area, like elsewhere in the state, was in ruins and there was a very slow recovery -- largely focused once again on rice cultivation and particularly the spread of tidal cultivation. The first census of St. Bartholomew in 1790 revealed a population of 12,606, with more than 82% of those enumerated being African

American slaves. Of the 538 heads of households in 1790, 311 or 58%, owned at least one slave.

The antebellum saw continued expansion of rice and continued accumulation of wealth by many planters. In fact, by 1860 Colleton District ranked second among South Carolina's 30 districts in rice production with 22.8 million pounds being produced (The Jaeger Company 1995:20). Mills commented that the district's rice lands were very productive, "yielding on an average two barrels, or 1400 pounds of rice to the acre" (Mills 1972 [1826]:505). Yet, with the decline in the return offered by rice, there was an accompanied slow-down in the rise of slavery for the region (The Jaeger Company 1995:20).

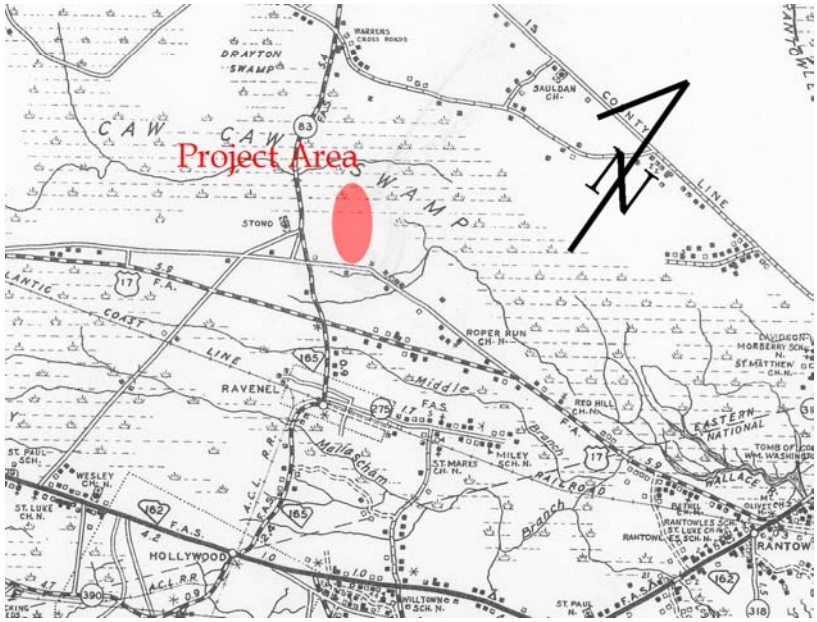


Figure 8. Portion of the 1942 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* showing the project area.

Mills' *Atlas* for Colleton (Figure 7) shows the project area as containing the Rose settlement.

Although rice was the dominant crop during the Antebellum, it was also a major producer of sweet potatoes (ranking fifth in 1840). Cotton production gradually increased from 1840 to 1860, as did both corn and rye production -- although these crops were almost exclusively found north of Walterboro, where the soils tend to be higher and somewhat drier (The Jaeger Company 1995:23).

Colleton County's location and river system gave it strategic importance throughout the Civil War. The events are briefly recounted by the architectural survey of the county (The Jaeger Company 1995:25-26) and include battles, the construction of various defenses, and the abandonment of plantation houses throughout the area. Perhaps the single greatest effect of the Civil War, however, was the loss of the labor white plantation owners had relied on to make their rice fields profitable. So after the war the county's economy -- like that throughout South Carolina -- was in

The 1870 census reports that 91% of Colleton County farms were under 100 acres in size, representing the breakup of many larger tracts and development of small farms, both owner-operated and tenant-operated.

The Jaeger Company (1995:28) points out that a total of 12,894.5 acres of Colleton County land was distributed by the South Carolina Land Commission -- the second highest total of all South Carolina counties.

Although an effort was made to restore rice production to pre-war levels, this effort was doomed. Not only was there resistance among black laborers, but a series of devastating storms hit the South Carolina coast in 1893, 1898, 1910, and 1911. Moreover, rice production was being mechanized in states like Texas and Louisiana, providing competition that South Carolina rice growers were unprepared to meet. A variety of

alternatives were sought, for example phosphate and timber, although each produced income for a relatively few years before collapsing.

In 1911, the project area became part of present day Charleston County (Stockton 1996).

The 1942 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* (Figure 8) shows the survey area as having one structure, however the structure appears to be located in an out-parcel.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be excavated to sterile subsoil, typically 0.8 to 2.0 feet below the surface. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology revisit site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

A total of 26 transects were set up running east-west within the project area. Shovel tests were performed to the north with a total of 345 excavated (No shovel testing was performed in Caw Caw Swamp, which reduced a large part of the acreage).

The GPS positions were taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. WAAS or Wide Area Augmentation System, is a system of satellites and ground stations that provide GPS signal corrections, yielding higher position accuracy – generally an accuracy of 10 feet or better 95% of the time. Both are vital concerns for the study area.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

Figure 9. View of roadway through the project tract.

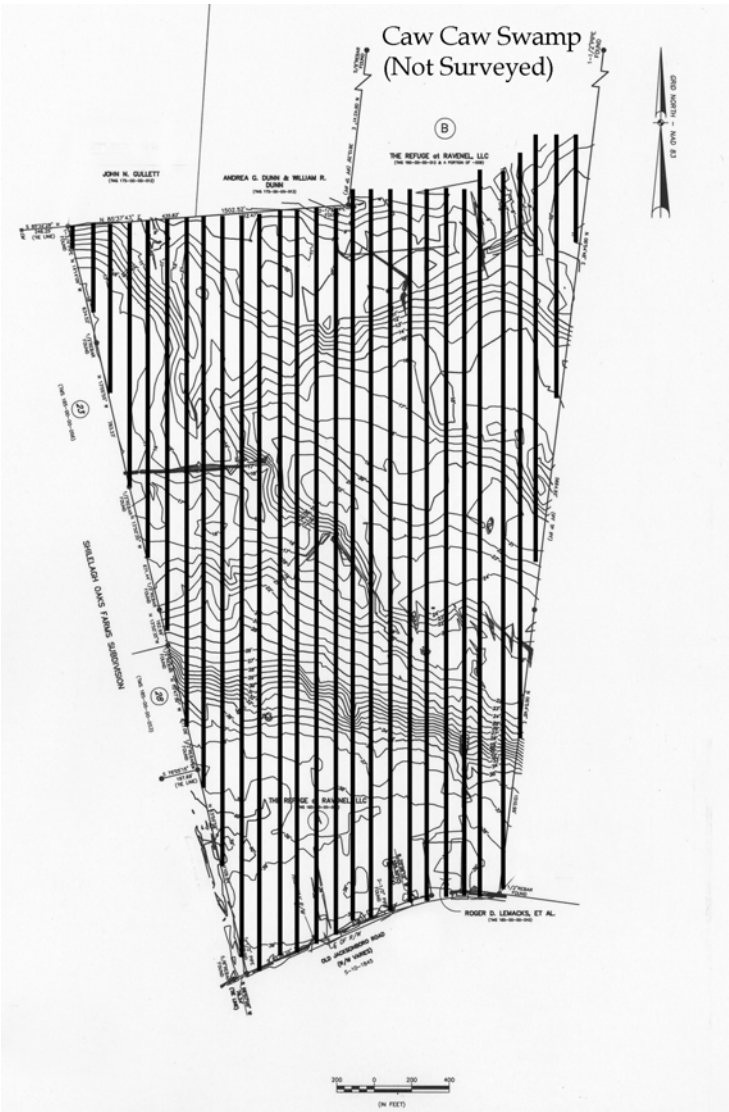


Figure 10. Project area shown with transects.

For each identified resource, we would complete a Statewide Survey Site form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff and the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and

a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack

individual distinction; or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

Figure 11. Shovel testing in the project area.

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. A site form for each of the identified archaeological sites have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that

agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1979) and South (1977).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey four archaeological sites (38CH2091-2094) were recorded (Figure 12). Site 38CH2091 is a late eighteenth to early nineteenth century domestic site that is potentially eligible for the National Register for its information about plantation life. Site 38CH2092 is a sparse nineteenth century scatter; site 38CH2093 is a sparse nineteenth century scatter; and site 38CH2094 is a late nineteenth to twentieth century domestic scatter. Sites 38CH2092-2094 are recommended not eligible for the National Register for their lack of data sets needed to address significant research questions.

The architectural survey did not identify any structures or other resources beyond those identified by the 1992 survey (Fick 1992). The Stono Baptist Church and Cemetery (378-506 and 378-506.01) have been determined not eligible for the National Register.

Archaeological Resources

38CH2091

Site 38CH2091 (Figure 13) is a late eighteenth to early nineteenth century domestic site located on a ridge top at an elevation of 40 feet AMSL. A UTM coordinate for the site is 570365E 3628052N (NAD27 datum).

Shovel testing was performed at 100-foot intervals until Transect 3, Shovel Test 10 (900R800) was positive. Close interval testing then began at 25-foot intervals along the cardinal directions, however due to the large size of the site, testing was increased to 50-foot intervals in an attempt to find the boundaries. Of the 168 shovel tests, 52 (31%) were positive and an additional 18 (11%) produced only brick.

Soils resembled the Chipley Series, which has an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy fine sand to 0.5 foot in depth over a yellowish brown (10YR5/4) loamy fine sand to just under a foot in depth.

As previously mentioned, the artifacts date to the early nineteenth century (Table 1). A

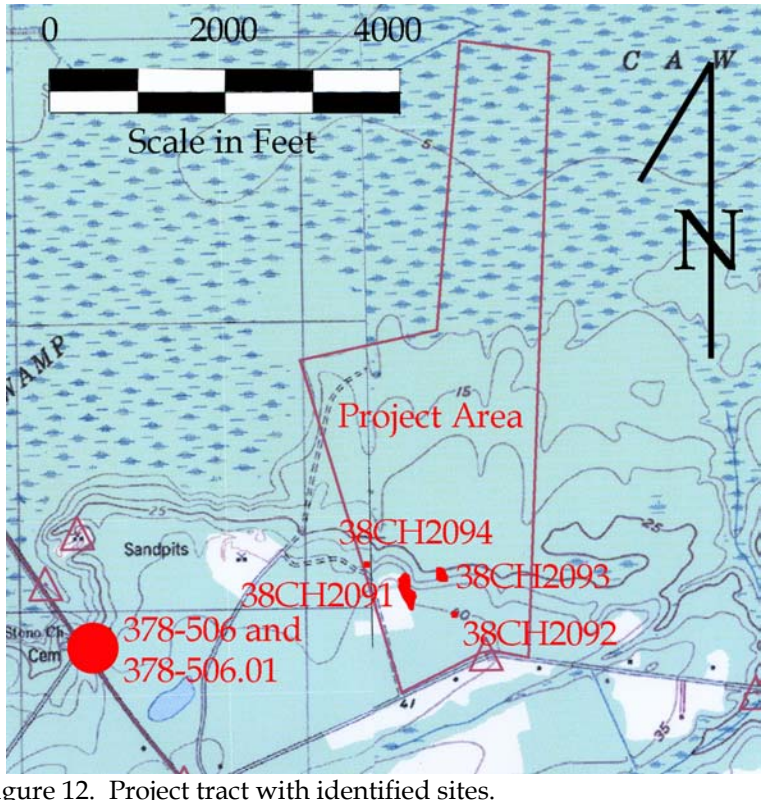
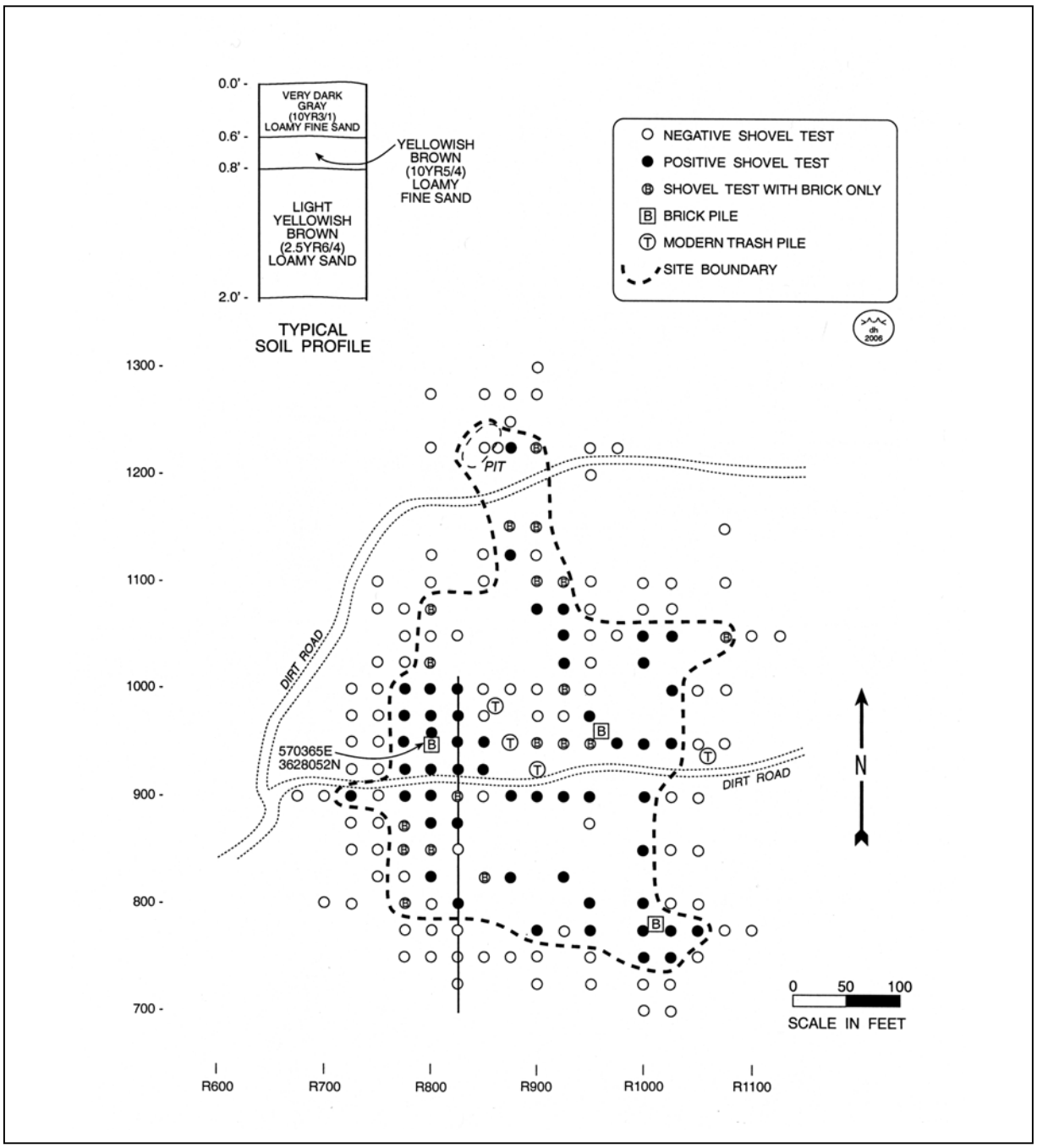


Figure 12. Project tract with identified sites.



mean ceramic date (MCD) for the site is 1806 with the earliest ceramic of undecorated creamware having a MCD of 1791. The latest ceramic is undecorated whiteware, which has a MCD of 1860 (Table 2). In addition, both handwrought nails and machine cut nails were recovered. Handwrought nails were heavily used in the late eighteenth century while machine cut nails were in use as early as 1825 (Howard 1989:54-55).

Four Groups (Kitchen – 61%, Architecture, -- 35%, Clothing – 0.8%, and Activities – 3%) are represented in the collection. It is unusual that no evidence of Arms or Tobacco Groups were found, however, this may just be the result of selective

Table 1.
Artifacts from 38CH2091

	Surface	725 R950	750 R950	750 R1000	775 R850	775 R1050	800 R825	800 R950	800 R1000	825 R800	825 R875	825 R925	875 R800	875 R825	875 R875	900 R725	900 R775	900 R800	900 R925	900 R950	900 R1000	925 R775	925 R800	925 R825	925 R850	950 R775	950 R825	950 R975	950 R1000	950 R1025	955 R800	975 R775	975 R800	975 R825	975 R925	1000 R800	1000 R825	1000 R1025	1025 R925	1025 R1000	1050 R925	1050 R1025	1075 R850	1075 R900	TOTAL
Kitchen Group																																												81
Porcelain, Chinese blue handpaint																	1																											
CW, undecorated																1						1								1		1	1		1	1		1			1			
CW, annular																						1																						
PW, poly hand paint																						1	1	1																			
PW, blue transfer print		1				1	1						1								1																						
PW, green edged												1				1																											
PW, blue edged						1																																					
PW, undecorated								1		1	1									1		2				2	2			2													
WW, black transfer print			1																																								
WW, undecorated		1																																									
Stoneware, brown salt glaze					1																																						
EW, burnt refined								1																				3															
EW, coarse red, black lead glaze																						1																					
EW, coarse red, brown lead glaze																										2																	
Glass, black									1				1	1	1	2		1	2			1					1					1	1	1								1		
Glass, manganese		1		1																																							
Glass, clear		2				1												1				1				1																	
Glass, light green		1						1	1			1																															
Glass, melted																		1			1							1	5	1													
Kettle fragment	1																																										
Architecture Group																																											47
Window glass																		1				2	2						1													
Nail, hand wrought																													1													
Nail, machine cut																		1																									
Nail, UID		1		4				2	2							2	2			1		9	8	1	2					1				1		1		1			1	
Clothing Group																																											1
Button, iron																															1												
Activities Group																																											4
Hoe blade	1																																										
Lead, melted						1																																					
Brass strip									1																																		
Iron, UID												1																															
Prehistoric																																											4
Sherd, small																										1						1							1					
Sherd, large																																			1									
Total																																											137

CW: Creamware; PW: Pearlware; WW: Whiteware; EW: Earthenware

Table 2.
Mean Ceramic Date (MCD) for 38CH2091

Ceramic	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Canton porcelain	1800-1830	1815	1	1815
Creamware, annular	1780-1815	1798	1	1798
Creamware, undecorated	1762-1820	1791	9	16119
Pearlware, poly hand painted	1795-1815	1805	3	5415
Pearlware, blue trans printed	1795-1840	1818	5	9090
Pearlware, edged	1780-1830	1805	3	5415
Pearlware, undecorated	1780-1830	1805	12	21660
Whiteware, non-blue trans printed	1826-1875	1851	1	1851
Whiteware, undecorated	1813-1900	1860	1	1860
Total			36	65023
Mean Ceramic Date	1806.2			

shovel testing. There is an absence of Colono ware, a slave made pottery, but the items are generally of lower status (i.e. annular ceramics and earthenwares).

In addition to producing almost 140 artifacts, three brick piles (Figure 14) were observed as well as a pit feature. Some surface brick was observed in the pit, however, no subsurface remains were found. Some modern trash piles were observed in the site area. Including the artifacts, brick piles, and pit feature, the site measures about 500 feet north-south by 375 feet east-west.

With at least three in situ structure remains and a large density of artifacts representing four Artifact Groups, this site may have the potential to address significant research questions suitable to the quality and quantity of remains found. 38CH2091 is recommended potentially eligible for the National Register. Additional close interval testing should be performed at 20 or 25-foot intervals to obtain a range of artifacts needed to better identify the function of this site. This close interval testing may also allow distinct structures or other site areas to be defined. The shovel testing should be supplemented with several 5-foot excavation units to better evaluate density and soil profiles. Finally, additional site specific historic research is also necessary.

The site area should be avoided until the State Historic Preservation Office has reviewed and assessed the site.

Figure 14. View of brick pile in 38CH2091.

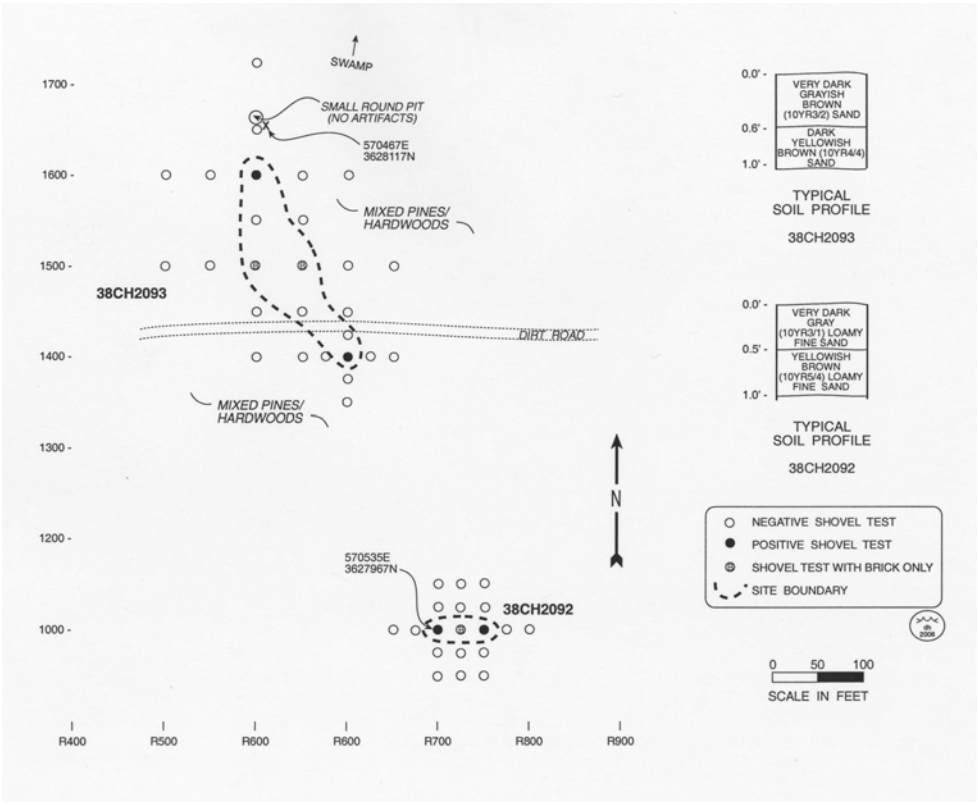


Figure 15. Sketch map and soil profile for 38CH2092 and 38CH2093.

38CH2092

Site 38CH2092 (Figure 15) is a subsurface scatter of early nineteenth century artifacts located on a ridge top at an elevation of 40 feet AMSL. The site is in a mixed pine and hardwood forest and has a UTM coordinate of 570535E 3627967N (NAD27 datum).

Shovel tests were completed at 100-foot intervals with the shovel test at Transect 9, Shovel Test 6 (1100R700) positive. Additional shovel testing was completed at 25-foot intervals until two consecutive negative tests were encountered.

A total of 19 tests were excavated with three positive (16%). Shovel tests produced Chipley soils that have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy fine sand to 0.5 foot in depth over a yellowish brown (10YR5/4) loamy fine sand to just under a foot in depth.

The site area, measuring about 25 feet north-south by 50 feet east-west, includes only three artifacts: one piece of brick (1100R725), one poly-handpainted creamware (1100R700), and one blue handpainted Chinese porcelain (1100R750). The ceramics produce a MCD of 1810, but the low density makes the date questionable.

Although datable remains are present, there is little else we can learn from this site. No features, such as brick foundations or identifiable wells, were found. In addition, no faunal or bioanthropological materials were found that could yield information on diet. With only three artifacts represented, there are not enough data sets to formulate significant research questions that the site can address.

Given the lack of data sets and low density of remains, this site is recommended not

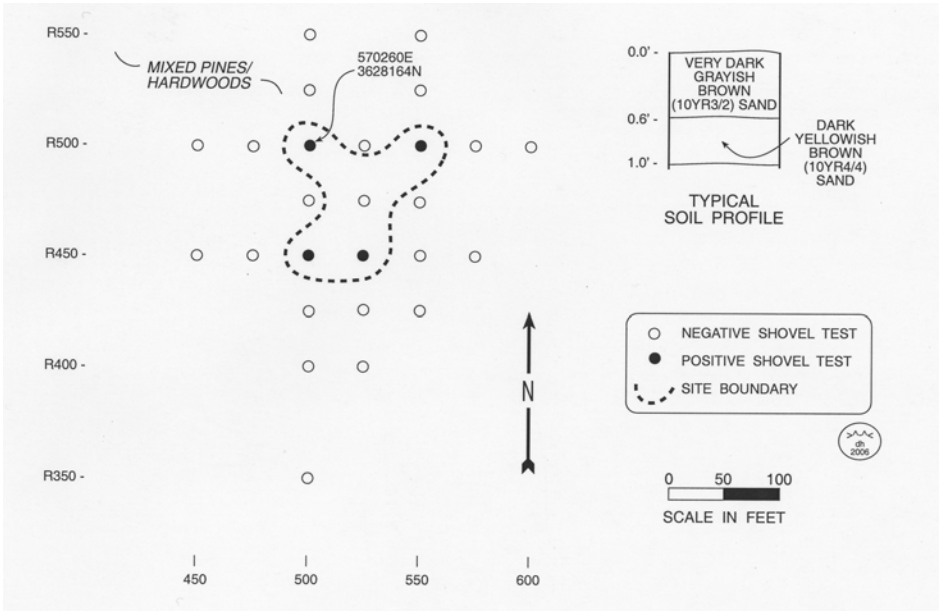


Figure 16. Sketch map and soil profile for 38CH2094.

eligible for the National Register. No additional management is needed pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

38CH2093

Site 38CH2093 (see Figure 15) is a subsurface scatter of nineteenth century artifacts located on a ridge side slope at an elevation of 30 feet AMSL. A UTM coordinate for the site, which is in a mixed pine and hardwood forest, is 570467E 3628117N (NAD27 datum).

Shovel tests were completed at 100-foot intervals until Transect 7, Shovel Test 10 (1500R500) was positive. Shovel testing was performed at 50-foot intervals along the cardinal directions until two consecutive negative tests were encountered in each direction. A total of 26 tests were excavated with four positive (15%).

Soils in the area resembled Lakeland sands, which have an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) sand to a depth of 0.6 foot over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sand to a depth of 1.1 feet. Artifacts were found in the upper 0.6 foot of soil.

The site area measures about 200 feet north-south by 100 feet east-west and produced a total of nine artifacts. Specifically, tests 1500R500 and 1500R550 produced only brick; 1400R600 produced one piece of brick and one melted glass; and 1600R500 produced two blue edge pearlware and one UID nail fragment. The pearlware, which was the only diagnostic artifact, has a MCD of 1805.

A nearby pit, located north of the site, may also be associated. This feature was not included in the total site area because a shovel tests inside the pit failed to produce any artifacts. The profile was similar to surrounding shovel tests, but the A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) exended about 0.2 foot deeper.

As with the previous site, there is little we can learn from 38CH2093. There is a low quantity of remains and only two data sets are represented and these remains are common. No brick foundations or intact clusters of artifacts were identified. In addition, no faunal or bioanthropological materials were found, which could yield information on diet.

Because of the low quantity and quality of artifacts we are unable to formulate any significant research questions for the site. 38CH2093 is recommended not eligible for the National

Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is needed pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

38CH2094

Site 38CH2094 (Figure 16) is a late nineteenth to twentieth century scatter of artifacts located on a side slope at an elevation of 30 feet AMSL. It is located in a mixed pine and hardwood forest. A UTM coordinate for the site is 570260E 3628164N (NAD27 datum). Shovel tests were originally completed at 100-foot intervals until Transect 0, Shovel Test 7 (500R500) was positive. Additional testing was then performed at 50-foot intervals along the cardinal directions until two consecutive negative tests were found.

A total of 25 shovel tests were excavated with four (16%) positive. Tests produced Lakeland sands, which have an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) sand to a depth of 0.6 foot over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sand to a depth of 1.1 feet.

The site area, measuring about 100 feet square, produced 25 artifacts from the Kitchen and Artifact groups (Table 3). While no ceramics were found that could aide in dating the site, manganese glass was common in the late nineteenth century (Jones and Sullivan 1985:13). Wire nails were common after 1880, but are still used today (Howard 1989:55).

Table 3.
Artifacts from 38CH2094

	500 R500	450 R525	500 R550	550 R500	TOTAL
Kitchen Group					**6**
Glass, green			1		
Glass, aqua				1	
Glass, manganese				1	
Glass, clear				3	
Architecture Group					**16**
Nail, wire cut		7			
Nail, UID	5			4	
Activities Group					**3**
Staple fragment		2			
Wire fragment		1			
Total					**25**

Figure 17. View of Stono Baptist Church (378-506).

The artifacts found at 38CH2094 are common and can do little to provide information to aide in addressing significant research questions. In addition, the site also appears to be amidst a modern dump site, possibly from the houses immediately to the west off the tract. Modern trash has overshadowed the historic remains that may be present.

Given the lack of quality of the artifacts and the loss of integrity from modern trash, it is unlikely that 38CH2094 will provide the data needed to address significant

Figure 18. View of a portion of the Stono Baptist Church Cemetery (378-506.01).

research questions. Site 38CH2094 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is needed pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

Architectural Resources

There are no previously recorded National Register buildings, districts, structures, or objects in the 0.5 mile APE. Two resources (378-506 and 378-506.01), however, were recorded in the 1992 Charleston Survey (Fick 1992). These resources are the c. 1855 Stono Baptist Church (Figure 17) and Cemetery (Figure 18) and have been found not eligible for the National Register. No additional resources were recorded in the survey. A drive of the surrounding roads verified the findings.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 126 acres in Charleston County to be used for a neighborhood of single family homes. This work, conducted for Mr. Phineas Deford of Special Properties examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist Special Properties in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation, four archaeological sites, 38CH2091-2094, were identified and assessed. Site 38CH2091 is a late eighteenth to early nineteenth century domestic site that is potentially eligible for the National Register for its information about plantation life. We recommend additional close interval shovel testing, several 5-foot test units, and site specific historic research in order to more fully assess the site. Until such work is conducted we recommend that the site area be avoided by all ground disturbing activities. Sites 38CH2092 and 38CH2093 are sparse nineteenth century scatters; and site 38CH2094 is a late nineteenth to twentieth century domestic scatter. Sites 38CH2092-2094 are recommended not eligible for the National Register for their lack of data sets needed to address significant research questions.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile confirmed the findings of the 1992 county-wide survey (Fick 1992). The c. 1855 Stono Baptist Church and Cemetery (378-506 and 378-506.01) were reassessed, but still found to be not eligible for the National Register. No additional structures were found in the project APE.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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